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ABSTRACT

This paper examines how the field of home economics education adapted to changes in the fields of education and home economics in the last 10 years. National trends and issues related to the employment and education of teachers are discussed with emphasis on influential factors and events such as enrollment declines and changes in the demand for public school teachers. Factors and events influencing changes in home economics and home economics education, including enrollment trends, the labor market for home economics graduates, and overall changes in the field, are examined. The relationship between home economics and home economics education is discussed. The paper concludes that the field of home economics education is in a state of transition, even more so than the broader field of education, and that changes in opportunities for women have affected both of these fields. (61 references) (CML)

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# HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE IMPACT OF A DECADE OF CHANGE

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The purpose of this paper is to examine how the field of home economics education has changed within the ongoing changes in the fields of education and home economics in the last 10 years.

A summary of national trends and issues related to the employment and education of teachers will be discussed emphasizing influential factors and events that have impacted the field of education including enrollment declines and changes in the demand for public school teachers. Then, home economics and home economics education will be examined from a national perspective as to what factors and events have influenced changes in this field including enrollment trends, labor market trends, and overall changes in the field of home economics education. Finally, the discussion will compare the relationship between home economics and home economics education.

## National Educational Trends

Recent reports on American schools called for reform of our public schools to improve the quality of the education that children receive. These reports ranged from A Nation at Risk, issued by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) to a study entitled A Nation Prepared conducted by the Carnegie Foundation (1986). These reports identify teachers as both part of the problem and part of the solution to problems faced in today's schools. Many states have made reforms in their preparation and certification of teachers as a result of these and other reports.

The field of teaching has been seen as a difficult field in which to examine trends and to predict future trends. Feistrizer (1986) stated that "reliable data that are about teachers and their qualifications are hard to come by" (p. 90). Hecker (1986), an economist, also found that teaching was

much too diverse an occupation to be described accurately; however, an understanding of the trends affecting opportunities for employment in the teaching field are helpful to understand occupational behavior within that field.

Trends in the Supply and Preparation of Teachers

There has been a steady decline in the number of persons preparing to become teachers in this country (U.S. Department of Labor, 1987). Education has traditionally been one of the few fields available to women. Today, women are less restricted in their occupational choices and there has been a sharp decline in the number of those who plan to teach. In 1969, nearly one-third of all freshman women in college were choosing teaching as a major field of study; however, in 1985, only one-tenth of freshmen selected teaching as their intended occupation (U.S. Department of Education, 1985; as cited by Carnegie Foundation for Advancement of Teaching, 1986). Women made up the majority of the teaching field in 1987, with 98.4% of the kindergarten teachers, 85.3% of the elementary teachers, and 54.3% of the secondary teachers being women (Employment & Earning, 1988; as cited by Kaufman, 1989). Today, there may be a swing back to education as a choice for a college major. In 1987, according to Feistrizer (1988), students were beginning to see teaching as available line of work again because the public was once again interested in education and the demographics point to a strong demand for teachers.

Reasons for the decline in teacher education enrollments vary. Musemeche and Adams (1978) stated that these observed declines in teacher education enrollment were due "to mass media on the oversupply of teachers, calling attention to the "blackboard jungle" situations in many public schools; low salaries; overall declining enrollments in colleges; and the

cost of attending college" (p. 691). Musemeche and Adams' (1978) findings were confirmed by Darling-Hammond's (1984) more recent findings. The Darling-Hammond (1984) study found that teachers were increasingly dissatisfied with their jobs and that the most highly qualified were also the most dissatisfied. This trend, Darling-Hammond (1984) contended, was due to demographic changes such as expanded opportunities for women and minorities and the low salaries and lack of prestige associated with teaching. These changes, she felt, were reflected in the decline in the numbers of those preparing to teach.

Some variables found to affect the supply of teachers included certification standards, salaries, student-teacher ratios, and enrollments. It was predicted that declining enrollments through the 1980s were expected to reduce the oversupply of teachers produced in the 70s. Dillich (1980) suggested that prospective teachers take courses that may lead to alternative employment, in case that they were unable to find a teaching position. However, another study done during this same time period (How College Graduates Newly Qualified to Teach Fare in the Job Market) showed that newly qualified teachers were at least as successful in obtaining jobs as were persons trained in most other fields (Metz & Crane, 1980).

Labor Market for Teachers

Demand for teachers comes from four basic situations according to the National Education Association (1982) and the Center for Education Statistics (Plisko & Stern, 1985). These include (1) increased student enrollments necessitating the opening of more classes or schools, (2) changes in school policy to expand curriculum offerings, (3) the need to replace those with provisional certificates and teachers that retire, and (4) the need to replace younger teachers that quit to raise families move to

other school districts, continue graduate work, or change careers. Demand can be reduced by decreased student enrollment, reductions in curriculum needs, delayed retirement, and the high incidence of occupational mobility.

Methods used to determine trends in the supply and demand for teachers vary, so do the findings. Roth (1981) analyzed the differences between major studies of teacher supply and demand by comparing methods used in the various studies, as well as the results obtained from each study. He concluded that while some specific findings differ from each of these studies, some general trends could be seen. Some boasted that there would be a strong demand for teachers, while others reported a balance of teachers to teach in the national public schools (Metz & Crane, 1980; Akin, 1988; Frankel & Gerald, 1980; Feistrizer, 1986) with shortages in some subjects and regions of the country.

Metz and Crane (1980) conducted a one-year follow-up study of 1974-75 graduates of teacher education to determine their labor force participation in teaching and reasons for non-participation. They found that only 22% were teaching, 12% did not even apply for a teaching job, and 54% were not teaching. Of those not applying for jobs, 48% said they did not apply because they did not want to teach, 26% said they lost interest, 12% already had other jobs, and 8% stated they did not like the low pay and working conditions. Of the 34% who did want to teach and were not teaching, 18% wanted another degree before applying, 9% were not ready to apply, 7% stated teaching jobs were too hard to get, and 18% were still undecided.

Dillich (1980) found the following national trends affected the demand for education graduates during the early 1980s and projected into the 1990s: (1) births were expected to rise for a few years and then decline through the year 2000; (2) enrollments in secondary education were not expected to

increase until the 1990s; (3) changes in the pupil-teacher ratio with increased special needs populations were expected to create an increased need for teachers in some local areas; (4) employment of secondary teachers was expected to decline; and (5) most openings occurring in the teaching field were replacing teachers leaving teaching during the 70s, with only 6% of these teachers retiring, dying, or transferring.

Fields (1985) found that the demand for teachers in 1985 was affected by the overall population figures that showed a marked decrease in the school age group between 1971 and 1984. It was also found that the shrinking budgets of schools, due to local and state tax cuts, created cuts in the teaching staff. A third factor was due to geographical population shifts; for example, outmigration from the northeast to the Rocky Mountains and the Sunbelt.

Carroll (1977) found that certification requirements impeded market adjustments for the supply/demand for teachers in two ways: (1) entry into the profession requires a lengthy preparation away from the employer; and (2) schools of education do not base their enrollment goals on projections of school districts' demands for teachers nor do school districts adjust the demand for teachers to meet the number of students enrolled in the colleges of education. Carroll (1977) predicted there would be a need for more certified teachers.

Another factor affecting the demand for teachers was that many teachers were not willing to move from areas of surplus to regions or areas of shortages, so imbalances persist. The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not predict that there will be a teacher shortage between 1986 and 1995 (as cited in Hecker, 1986). However, the Department of Education estimated that 6 to 8% of school teachers leave the occupation annually, a rate not

significantly different than that of other occupations (as cited in Hecker, 1986). After 1995, there would be an increase in the number of teachers reaching retirement age (Hecker, 1986), which may affect the demand for teachers.

## Teaching: A Woman's Less-than-Profession

How did teaching become a female dominated profession and a semi-profession rather than a true profession? The less than professional status of teachers has been attributed to the notion that women lack commitment to building careers; they go in and out of the labor market to bear and raise children, and to work only for extra money rather than for needed money for the household (Lortie, 1975). Geer (as cited by Spencer, 1986) supported these perceptions of the teaching field in citing the high dropout rates of graduates in education and those in their first years of teaching, as well as women's tendency to move in and out of teaching to attend to their families. Geer offered the following explanations for these observations: (1) the field does not create new knowledge; (2) a student's success was not seen as one teacher's success, and there were limited intrinsic rewards; (3) there is not a shared community to bind the profession; (4) there was no real system for advancement or occupational mobility, no system of rewards for achievement; and (5) with the time schedule of most teachers and the length of vacations, "moonlighting" is common in teaching due to economic needs (Geer, as cited by Spencer, 1986, pp. 1-2). Spencer (1986) pointed out that today's teachers do not have the luxury of moving in and out of teaching. Feistrizer (1983) augmented this view when she stated that "sheer economic necessity is driving women into higher paying professions" (p. 83). Lortie (1975) found earlier, however, that women were reluctant to admit that they were working for a paycheck.

Spencer (1986) offered some of the following explanations for the treatment of teaching as a semi-profession, or a "quasi-profession" (as she calls it):

1. The public perceives teaching to be an easy job.
2. Most teachers are women and most administrators in school are men.
3. Teachers receive low salaries for a person with a college degree.
4. There is little or no control over the workplace.
5. The fact that substitute teachers do not have to have any special training, supports the thought that anyone can teach. (pp. 3-5)

Feistrizer (1983) reported that over one-third of the teachers in this nation are unsatisfied with their jobs and over half would not choose teaching again as their career if they had it to do over again. "The effects of widespread dissatisfaction among teachers and of fewer women choosing teaching as a career need serious study, given predicted teacher shortages in the future" (Spencer, 1986, p. 1). As women have changed in their relationship with their work, there have been changes occurring in those occupations they have dominated; education is a prime example of this change and transition. Women are starting to enter a larger variety of occupations; therefore, those occupations they have traditionally held such as nursing and teaching may see shortages due to the lack of interest by women.

Several things have happened in teaching in an effort to remedy this situation. Efforts have been made to try to make the field more of a profession via the introduction of career ladders in some states and increased academic requirements for certification. Minimum starting salaries have also been introduced to attract persons to teaching.

## National Trends in Home Economics and Home Economics Education

Teaching and home economics have been traditionally female fields for many years, and with changes in opportunities for women to enter other, more

non-traditional areas, these fields have begun to change. The following is a review of the transition of the home economics education field, within the broader field of home economics.

Home Economics: A Field in Transition

Those in home economics and home economics education are aware that their field is changing. Several issues of Illinois Teacher of Home Economics (1988-89) and several articles in the Journal of Home Economics (1988-89) have addressed this issue. There have been many changes in the role of the homemaker and the functioning of the family within our society, as well as in the field of home economics, whose primary focus is on the family, and, historically, the homemaker role within that family. The history of home economics is also closely tied to the development of the education of women. Advocates for the field of home economics have included a diverse group of women. There were those who proposed that the homemaker role was to keep the female at home, where she could be most influential in preserving the nation's morality (Saidak, 1986). There were those who believed that the application of science to aspects of the home would release women from the home and the economic dependency of marriage (Vincenti, 1981, pp. 100-101). And, finally, there were those who referred to home economics as the "home movement" with the shared understanding that the home is the most influential and fundamentally important social institution in our society (Vincenti, 1981, pp. 100-101).

"At the turn of the century, there were three major occupations in which paid work outside the home was available for women: domestic service, factory work, and school teaching" (Perun & Bielby, 1981, p. 237). Home economics teaching seemed to encompass two of these three occupations. "Of all disciplines in modern America, home economics was the one most

intimately bound in its origins and purpose to marriage, domesticity, traditional gender roles, and the presence of children . . . promotion of family life and homemaking were the profession's primary raison d'etre" (Carlson, 1987, p. 1). Charlotte Perkins Gilman in her book Women and Economics stated that the situation in 1898 was that

> forces of social and economic change were working to undermine the position of the wife and mother in the family. The laws of particularly the economic gain won through the specialization of labor--slated the private home for extinction, for the average homemaker was asked to be skilled in too many professions at once. (as cited by Carlson, 1987, p. 2)

Through the industrialization of America, the housekeeping role has been reduced to cleaning, cooking, and child care. During the information era of today, business has begun to take over these jobs by providing these services. Gilman saw these changes over 100 years ago in society, and she saw that these changes in society would liberate women from the home. This is evident when she stated that women were

> finally free to sell their labor for tasks to which they were individually suited. . . . Family bonds based on antique economics would disappear . . . with the home no longer being a workshop or museum, but rather a place of peace and rest, of love and privacy. (as cited by Carlson, 1987, p. 3)

Sixteen years later, an early home economist, Christine Frederick (1914), stated in the Journal of Home Economics that "our greatest enemy is the woman with a career" (as cited by Carlson, 1987, p. 3). In 1953, the home economics field still took pride in having the "largest single occupation of college women graduates" (Carlson, 1987, p. 3). During this same time period, Hall (1965) wrote that women's "greatest fulfillment comes through their own home and family. The home is truly the center of a woman's life. . . . [The homemaker] knows that she is performing a task that is the very pivot of society" (as cited in Carlson, 1987, p.3).

A state of turmoil or confusion was observed into the 1960s. According to Carlson (1987), in 1968 home economics could best be described as in

> a state of turmoil marked by general confusion about what [we're] doing and a frantic search for identity and status. . . . As two prominent educators noted that same year, home economics in the land-grant schools was fractured with disputes about its function and its future. (p. 5)

It has become apparent that the women's movement has influenced home economics. This was seen in changes in attitudes. In the 60s, students were not encouraged to look at homemaking as a lifetime career, but rather, they were to also seek out gainful employment. It is during this same time period that federal legislation was enacted to mandate the development of occupational home economics education programs (e.g., Vocational Education Act of 1968).

By the last half of the 1970s, home economics programs in higher education were marked by many economic changes which affected enrollments. According to Horn (1988),

> prior to the mid-1970's, the growth rate for baccalaureate programs in home economics surpassed the rate for higher education in general, but by the end of the 1970s, enrollment began to decline. In the decade form 1973 to 1983, undergraduate enrollments in home economics decreased 16 percent, while higher education enrollments in general went up 21 percent. (p. 28)

During this time period employment opportunities for women opened up in a wide variety of occupational areas with large numbers of women pursuing new career paths, instead of the traditional ones in education and nursing (Greninger, Hampton, Kitt, & Durrett, 1986, p. 271). Geninger et al. (1986) observed that "this expansion in employment opportunities for women correlated with a slowdown in the productivity of home economics programs in terms of degrees granted and overall enrollment" (p. 272).

These changes in women's roles and perceptions of their roles were evident in a speech given in 1973 by Robin Morgan, a feminist, when she stated in a presentation to the American Home Economics Association that:

> those who stay in the obsolete profession [home economics] must work to "change" social mores, not reinforce them. . . . It's your choice whether you're going to crumble with that system . . . while history rolls over you or whether you're going to move with [history]. I hope that you will join us--butwe're going to win in any event. (American Home Economics Association, 1973, p. 13)

Patricia Thompson stated in a more recent presentation to Canadian home economists that

> Home economics has been increasingly reflective over the twentieth century about its philosophy, mission, and image. It has employed some feminist analysis, but it remains uneasy about a feminism which feels has rejected home economics in spite of the mutual interest in the female role definition. (Thompson, as cited by Saidak, 1986, p. 51)

Change continues to take place in home economics. Green (1989) cited current external trends in socio-demographic, economics, health, and politics as influencing the home economics field today. How these current external trends will affect home economics is being seen in the specialization within the field of home economics.

Declining Enrollments in Home Economics Education Majors

"Declining enrollment trends in home economics have stimulated exploration of causes and cures" (Stewart & Daniel, 1989, p. 50). According to Green (1989), of all majors in home economics, home economics education has suffered the largest decrease in enrollment with a decrease of 73 percent between 1973 and 1983. Similar findings were reported by Redick, King, and Veach (1983) for 1972 through 1981. This decline was greater than the 50 percent being experienced by education in general, according to the National

Education Association (NEA) (as cited by Redick et al., 1983). The NEA also indicated that 30 to 35% of all education graduates do not seek employment as a classroom teacher (as cited by Redick et al., 1983).

Other areas of general study in home economics have also suffered declines such as journalism and general home economics; however, these declines were much less severe than home economics education. Home economics majors have dramatically increased in the specialty areas of home management and family economics, restaurant management, foods, nutrition and dietetics, and clothing and textiles (Green, 1989). Harper (1981) also found enrollment declines in home economics education unique from other specialty areas within home economics. Bertha G. King of the United Stated Department of Education has stated, "Considering current trends in education nationwide, it is speculated that this decline in enrollment may continue a few more years before leveling off. If the decline continues, it is anticipated that some programs will be discontinued" (as cited in Lambert & Clayton, 1985, p. 4). "If we continue according to straight-line projections, in another decade home economics in higher education will have virtually no undergraduate majors in education, communications/journalism, or general home economics" (Green, 1989, p. 45). Three to four home economics programs are lost annually due to declining enrollments, according to Harper and Davis (1986). "Degrees granted in general programs decreased from approximately 58 percent of total degrees in 1968-69 to 26 percent in 1978-79 and to 20 percent in 1982-83" (Rees, Ezeil, & Firebaugh, 1989, p. 30). As of 1988, 62% of all the home economics education programs in the nation had five or fewer graduates from these programs (Weis & Pomraning, 1988).

Factors often associated with these declining enrollments were (1) the widespread publicity about the oversupply of teachers; (2) a decline in the number of college-aged individuals; (3) a decrease in federal vocational funds; (4) an inability to attract male students; (5) increased costs of higher education; and (6) a tight job market for teachers and cooperative extension agents (Hall, Wallace, & Lee, 1983; Harper, 1981; Peterson & Roscoe, 1983). Kellett (1989) feels that universities that offer home economics education are in a crisis situation because of these declining enrollments in home economics teacher education caused by increasing graduation requirements and accountability for certification.

According to Rees et al. (1989), the trend in the home economics profession is to specialization rather than generalization. "The traditional job market for bachelor's degree students as secondary school teachers is troubled by the curriculum and financial problems in the various school districts" (Rees et al., 1989, p. 31).

A recent study by McClelland and Plihal (1987) found of those deciding to drop out of the home economics education major, half of this group stated their reasons were employment related. These reasons included expectations related to the number of teaching positions available in home economics; the limited variety of jobs available for someone with a degree in home economics education; and job security. One-fourth of this same group gave the reason that they disliked the stereotype of the field or perceived a difference between themselves and other home economics education students.

Lambert and Clayton (1985) found that the majority of the home economics education programs had altered their original purpose from preparing teachers of home economics and cooperative extension, due to the changing job market. Some programs have started options for home economics

education majors in business, communications, journalism, human services, early childhood education, and adult education. They also found that enrollment in home economics education programs across the country averaged 39 per institution with a mean of 19 graduates in 1979 to a mean of 11 graduates in 1983. They also found that of home economics education graduates surveyed in 1983, 50 percent secured teaching positions and 8 percent were in Cooperative Extension Service.

## The Labor Force Market for Home Economics and Home Economics Education Graduates

The Bureau of Labor Statistics conducted an analysis of follow-up data on college graduates one to two years after they received the bachelor's degree in 20 fields of study. Home economics was one of the fields of study for this analysis. This analysis was done for the years 1978, 1980, and 1984 and reported in the Occupational Outlook Quarterly (Braddock & Hecker, 1988, 1984; Hecker, 1982). According to Braddock and Hecker (1988), of the 1983-84 college graduates; 89% were in the work force, with 75% employed full-time, 11% employed part-time, and 3% unemployed. Nine percent were not in the labor force because they were attending school, one percent had family responsibilities, and another 1% was classified as reasons being "other." Of those completing a home economics degree, 29% were employed in home economics-related work; of these, 17% were school teachers and 10% were preschool teachers. Overall, 64% of this group was working in jobs requiring a college degree.

Over this six-year time period between 1978 to 1984, home economics graduates have increased their overall rate of employment from 82% to 89%, an increase of 7% (see Table 1). Full-time employment accounts for most of this increase with only slight changes in part-time work and unemployment.

The class of 1981 saw the highest levels of part-time work and unemployment during the years being examined. Compared with all college graduates of this time period, home economics graduates were slightly less likely to be in the labor force prior to 1984 than other college graduates. The class of 1984, however, had slightly more graduates working, primarily on a full-time basis, than all college graduates for that year. Overall, the comparison in Table 1 shows that home economics graduates have tended to work less part time and have had similar employment rates to other college graduates in general.

Table 1

Home Economics Graduates in the Labor Force by Year as Compared to all College Graduates

| Year | Employed Full-time | Employed Part-time | Unemployed | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1978 | 67% [69%] | 11% [12%] | 4% [5%] | 82% [86%] |
| 1981 | 71% [70%] | 8% [12%] | 5% [4%] | 84% [86%] |
| 1984 | 75% [70%] | 11% [12%] | 3% [3%] | 89% [85%] |

Source: Data were obtained for 1984 from Braddock and Hecker (1988), for 1981 from Braddock and Hecker (1984), and for 1978 from Hecker (1982). Data in the brackets are for all college graduates over this time period from the data sources.

Although home economics graduates appear to be employed at a high level, comparable with all college graduates, less than three-fourths are in jobs requiring a college degree and about half of these jobs are not related to the graduates' fields of study (see Table 2). The largest percentage of those employed in a home economics-related field requiring a college degree are teachers. In 1980, 21% were employed as teachers compared with only 6%

in 1978. Also, in 1980, the largest number of graduates were employed in home economics-related fields (49%). The most recent graduates (1984) were less likely to be employed in a home economics-related field requiring a college degree than graduates from prior years; however, those employed in a home economics-related field requiring a college degree still tended to be teachers (17%).

Table 2

Home Economics Graduates Employed in Jobs Generally Requiring a College Degree

| | Home Economics Related | | | | | Non-Home Economics Related | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Year | Teacher | Dietician | Buyer | Designer | Total | Total | Total |
| 1978 | 6% | 13% | 14% | -- | 33% | 28% | 61% [72%] |
| 1981 | 21% | 20% | 4% | 4% | 49% | 29% | 78% [78%] |
| 1984 | 17% | 8% | 2% | 2% | 29% | 35% | 64% [74%] |

Source: Data were obtained for 1984 from Braddock and Hecker (19880), for 1981 from Braddock and Hecker (1984), and for 1978 from Hecker (1982). Data in the parentheses are for all college graduates over this time period from the same data sources.

Home economic graduates tend to be employed in occupations not requiring a college degree in a higher proportion than all college graduates (see Table 3). However, 1980 home economics graduates were in equal proportions with all college graduates for working in occupations not requiring a degree. This group of home economics graduates were primarily employed in clerical positions.

Table 3

Home Economics Graduates Employed in Selected Ocupations Not Requiring a College Degree by Occupation and Year

| Year | Clerical | Service | Retail | Other | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1978 | 12% | 8% | 2% | 17% | 39% [28%] |
| 1981 | 21% | 14% | 4% | -- | 22% [22%] |
| 1984 | 17% | 8% | 4% | 4% | 36% [26%] |

Source: Data were obtained for 1984 from Braddock and Hecker (1988), for 1981 from Braddock and Hecker (1984), and for 1978 from Hecker (1982). Data in the parentheses are for all college graduates over this time period from the same data sources.

In another survey, based on the 1979 American Home Economics Association membership survey, 68% of all respondents were employed full time. Of this group, the majority were female (99%), aged 40 or younger (60%), white (94%), married (57%), earned $10,000-24,999 in annual income from their employment (78%), and held advanced degrees (51%). Slightly less than half (44.2%) of the home economists in the American Home Economics Association have home economics education degrees, with the majority employed in educational institutions or systems (69.2%) (Fanslow, Andrews, Scruggs, Vaughn, & Botts, 1980).

In further analysis of these data, Townsley, Scruggs, Callsen, and Warde (1984) found that "the more advanced the degree, the higher the income" (p. 19). Females with a bachelor's degree in home economics, employed on a full-time basis, earned an average of $13,547 annually and at the master's and doctoral levels were earning $17,574 and $23,614, respectively. The median income range for those in home economics education

was $13,378. Townsley et al. (1984) concluded that education, sex, minority status, academic major, and type of employer affect the home economist's annual income from employment.

Current data available (Bobbitt, 1988) at the national level on the supply and demand for home economics education graduates show a shortage of 1,276 home economics education graduates through 1995 (see Table 4). However, if one assumes that with a bachelor's degree in home economics education one received teacher certification in home economics, there would only be a shortage of 160. This also assumes that no one from the reserve pool would be willing to work as a home economics teacher. In examining the number of projected college faculty that would be needed, it appears that there would be a shortage, since most positions require a doctoral college degree and only 33 persons are expected to obtain a doctorate in home economics education between 1988 and 1995 (Bobbitt, 1988).

The New England Home Economics Teacher Educators' and State Supervisors' (1988) research indicated a shortage of home economics teachers for the New England area due to severe declines in the number of persons graduating with home economics education degrees and the decrease in the number of institutions offering home economics education degrees. Some institutions are also threatening to close existing programs. The use of emergency certificates has been implemented using nontraditional and outreach modes to provide courses to these people for certification.

Table 4

Annual Employment Opportunities in Home Economics Teaching and Annual College Graduates Supply in Home Economics Education through 1995

| | Demand for Home Economics Education Graduates | | Predicted Supply of Home Economics Education Graduates |
|---|---|---|---|
| 288 | Adult Education Teacher | 1254 | Bachelor's Degrees |
| 589 | Secondary Teachers | 265 | Master's Degrees |
| 117 | College Faculty | 33 | Doctoral Degrees |
| 199 | Occupational-Secondary Teachers | | |
| 78 | Occupational-Postsecondary Teachers | | |
| 824 | Consumer Homemaking Secondary Teachers | | |
| 96 | Consumer Homemaking Teachers Postsecondary | | |
| 647 | Related Teaching Positions | | |
| 2828 | Total Demand | 1552 | Total Supply |

Source: Bobbitt, N. (1988)

Other studies and surveys conducted during the past decade reveal a changing picture. Rossman, Parsons, and Holman (1983) reported that 86% of home economics education graduates of a major midwestern university from the classes of 1976 to 1981 planned to teach; 53% did teach in schools, and 32% were employed in positions which they identified as closely related to their home economics education degrees. Odlund and Cebik's (1975) and Galambos' (1976) studies indicated there was a teacher surplus during the early to mid-70s in home economics. Yocum (1980) conducted a follow-up survey of

Alabama graduates during this same time period and found that of the 71.2% of those employed, only 23% were teaching home economics in 1979. A more recent follow-up survey of Alabama home economics education graduates of 1978 through 1986 found that 11% have not entered the labor force since graduation from college (Tincher, 1989).

Dohner (1986) conducted a national survey of home economics education graduates to determine what alternative career home economics education graduates were participating in and to what extent they were adequately prepared for these careers. The sample was obtained from home economics teacher educators providing the names and addresses of those graduates whom they knew were employed in areas other than home economics teaching or cooperative extension service. She examined their current employment, type of employment, function and area of responsibility, kind of industry, service, job security, and demographic information. Also, information was gathered on what additional education or experience they had acquired such as other training formal training, training offered by the organization or company, or other degree. Types of organizations were divided into profit-making, non-profit, government, sales, owner, university, and partnership.

Dohner (1986) found graduates employed in alternative careers fit into the following categories: educational services (21.8%), retail (15.3%), durable good manufacturing (8.1%), community services (7.2%), public services (6.5%), communications (5%), non-durable goods manufacturing (4.7%), and other (16.8%).

Studies have indicated low job satisfaction among vocational home economics teachers who were married and had children, with economics being their major reason for remaining in home economics teaching (Light & Hanson, 1983; Martin & Light, 1984). Felstenhausen (1983) found a negative

relationship between childbearing and job performance among secondary home economics teachers, while the opposite effect was true for home economics extension agents. Home economics teachers in positions other than teaching or extension indicated that their jobs were self-fulfilling, despite low pay (Dohner, 1985).

Amos and Nelson's (1979) study indicated that New York home economics teachers believed teaching was a profession. This group heavily identified with other home economists and believed in the common goals of the field. Their views seemed to be influenced by their immediate families' and parental support of their career choice, years of professional experience, teaching as a first career, and journal reading (Amos & Nelson, 1979; Douglas, 1983). Dohner (1985) found that the majority of home economics educators in careers other than teaching and extension did not identify with home economics and did not remain affiliated with home economics organizations.

Lambert and Clayton (1984) found that 50% of the 1982-83 land-grant home economics education graduates were employed in alternative careers, while one-third of the institutions indicated they specifically prepared students for alternative careers. Home economics education graduates indicated they were well prepared by their teacher education institutions for skills they needed in their alternative careers (Dohner, 1985).

The field of home economics education considers itself to be a part of both the field of education and the field of home economics, both of which have declining college enrollments. Home economics education faces an uncertain future due to changes in women's roles.

Tremblay (1988) suggested that three trends have "cast confusion upon the definition and goal of home economics" (p. 46), including the changing

of the names of units of home economics in higher education to human ecology, family life or some other "PR" title. A second trend he observed was the broadening of the goals of home economics to improve the quality of life of families and individuals. Everyone these days wants to improve the quality of life for individuals, he contended. Only home economics focuses on the improvement of the quality of life of the family. His final trend observed was that of the interdisciplinary nature of the field. Tremblay (1988) stated that "the interdisciplinary nature of home economics has been undermined by the general failure of home economists with different specialties to work jointly on problems affecting family quality of life" (p. 46). He also contended that home economics has become so specialized that there was no unified bond in home economics programs. As Griffin also stated, "What affects one of our [home economics] areas affects the discipline as a whole" (as cited by Tremblay, 1988, p. 47).

Smathers (1989) warns that we should not assume that home economics, and home economics education in particular, will be here in the year 2000. The field refers to itself by different names, contributing to the confusion.

Love (1987) earlier made these observations of change and transition for home economics education in noting the confusion of factual data available in the field. The field of home economics education is in a state of transition, even more so than the broader field of education. The changes in opportunities for women have impacted both of these fields. This paper shows how home economics education has changed in relation to the large fields of education and home economics.

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